

An International Survey of Indoor Air Quality, Ventilation, and Smoking Activity in Restaurants: A Pilot Study

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ABSTRACT

A survey of indoor air quality was performed in 34 medium-priced restaurants in six countries in Asia, Europe and North America using a uniform protocol. The concentration of selected constituents of environmental tobacco smoke (ETS) present in occupied areas was determined during lunch and dinner periods by measuring the levels of five particulate-phase markers and two gas-phase markers. The particulate-phase markers determined were respirable suspended particles (RSP), ultraviolet particulate matter (UVP), fluorescing particulate matter (FPM), solanesol, and solanesol particulate matter (SolPM). The gas-phase markers were nicotine and 3-ethenylpyridine (3-EP). Correlation between the markers was investigated to explore an improved monitoring approach. It was concluded that at least one marker in each phase was necessary to adequately describe the ETS load. An assessment was made of the ventilation system in each restaurant, and effective ventilation rates were determined based on CO₂ measurements. Smoking activity was also monitored. These data were used to model nicotine and 3-EP concentrations that resulted in a satisfactory prediction of their levels, especially at the higher concentrations. Questionnaires (1370) were returned by the restaurant patrons in five countries. In some countries, dissatisfaction rates above 20% were observed for draft, freshness of air and noise. The dissatisfaction rates related to tobacco smoke were less than 20%, which is lower than would be predicted based on measured ETS levels. Based on the results of this international pilot study, recommendations are given for future studies of this type.

INTRODUCTION

A number of studies have been conducted that assess the impact of environmental tobacco smoke (ETS) in public facilities including restaurants. Some of these studies have focused on chemical measurements (Jenkins et al. 2000), ventilation measurements (e.g., Bohanon et al. 1998), occupant questionnaires pertaining to air quality acceptability (e.g., Moschandreas and Vuilleumier 1999), and observation of smoking activity (e.g., Ott 1999). Results have been used to propose various indoor air quality (IAQ) models (Bohanon and Cole 1997). However, only a few investigations have included data for all of these parameters within any single investigation (e.g., Hodgson et al. 1996; Daisey et al. 1998). To construct and test indoor air quality models, all parameters that impact on the results should be measured simultaneously. We report the results of an international study that incorporated simultaneous measurements of the parameters described above.

This project was designed as a pilot to better understanding of issues associated with a comprehensive indoor environment investigation using the following six steps:

1. To survey restaurants in several countries.
2. To determine concentrations of selected environmental tobacco smoke (ETS) constituents present in occupied spaces in restaurants.
3. To determine acceptability of indoor environmental conditions as judged by occupants of the restaurant space.
4. To appraise the ventilation system including operation and maintenance of heating, ventilating, and air conditioning (HVAC) systems, and to estimate ventilation rates.
5. To determine smoking rates simultaneous with the other measurements.
6. To investigate correlation among ETS constituent concentrations, smoking rates and ventilation rates including the potential for modeling, and occupant perceptions of the indoor environment.

The study was based on a uniform protocol and conducted in thirty-four medium-priced restaurants where smoking was permitted that were located in six countries (France, Korea, Japan, Switzerland, United Kingdom, and United States). Air samples and questionnaires were obtained during the lunch and/or dinner period on high occupancy days. Minor modifications of the protocol for the study were necessary to accommodate circumstances in individual countries. Because this was a pilot investigation, it was not designed to yield representative data for the individual countries. However, the data yielded valuable information on the experimental protocol, methodology, ETS concentration and occupant perception of the indoor environment. Recommendations for improved study design and implementation are based on these results.

COMPONENTS OF THE INVESTIGATION

This investigation consisted of three principal parts: area sampling and chemical analysis, questionnaires completed by customers, and assessment of the ventilation system. Each of these will be described below.

Sampling and Chemical Analysis

Because results obtained by different teams in different countries were to be consolidated, an experimental protocol was established and distributed to the participants to ensure that consistent methodology would be used in sampling and analytical determinations. The participating laboratories agreed to abide by this protocol whenever possible. However, some deviations were observed, reflecting local practices, facilities and analytical procedures available to the participants. The protocol relied on area monitoring to obtain quantitative information on the

environmental conditions within the restaurants. Respirable suspended particulate matter (RSP), though not specific to ETS, was determined because many investigators use it as a reference criterion. Three additional markers were measured to assess the ETS contribution to the aerosol particulate matter. Two of them, ultraviolet particulate matter (UVP) and fluorescing particulate matter (FPM), reflect the airborne levels of combustion aerosols (Jenkins et al. 2000). These markers can be determined simultaneously (Ogden et al. 1989; Conner et al. 1990) and have been used extensively in similar studies to provide a more selective assessment of ETS contribution to RSP (Jenkins et al. 2000). The third marker, solanesol particulate matter (SolPM), has become increasingly used in recent studies. It is based on the measurement of the concentration of solanesol, a non-volatile trisesquiterpenoid alcohol that can be found in an aerosol only resulting from the combustion of tobacco. Therefore, it is specific for the assessment of the ETS contribution to RSP (Ogden and Maiolo 1989; Jenkins et al. 2000; Douce et al, 2001). The use of all three markers rests on the application of factors to derive the particulate matter concentrations from the measured data (Nelson et al. 1997, 1998). Because solanesol is in itself descriptive of the ETS level in the environment, its concentration values were reported in addition to the SolPM levels.

The gas phase markers for ETS determined in this study were nicotine and 3-ethenylpyridine (3-EP), the latter being a product of the thermal decomposition of nicotine (Heavner et al. 1995). Both compounds are specific to tobacco smoke. In addition to markers associated with ETS, measurements were made for carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide levels. Carbon dioxide was monitored in real-time and used to estimate the effective ventilation rate as a function of time and

occupancy. The temperature and relative humidity (RH) in the occupied areas were also recorded.

Questionnaires

Restaurant owners are motivated by business reasons to strive for customer satisfaction. However, little guidance on how to provide acceptable indoor environmental conditions for restaurants is available. Some national or international ventilation standards or guidelines provide general information (e.g. CEC 1992; ASHRAE 62-1999; CEN CR 1752 1998) based on laboratory environment studies (Cain et al. 1983) or field-tests in some workplace environments (Fanger 1998). However, only a few studies have tested the applicability of this information to the hospitality environment (Moschandreas and Vuilleumier 1999). Therefore, questionnaires were used to evaluate customer perceptions of the indoor environment, and these were combined with chemical analysis and ventilation assessment to provide relationships between all three components in restaurants. This approach is helpful in the evaluation of the applicability of published guidelines to restaurant indoor air environments.

Ventilation Assessment

In the simplest terms under steady-state conditions, the concentration of a given indoor air contaminant is the result of the source generation rate divided by the contaminant removal rate, which requires an assessment of ventilation. A

variety of ways to estimate ventilation rates have been used (Turner et al. 1995). Direct measures of airflow are reliable only if all of the air exchange is controlled through a mechanical system. A tracer gas such as sulfur hexafluoride (SF_6) can be introduced into the area and its concentration measured as a function of time. As an alternative, carbon dioxide may be used as a naturally generated tracer gas for which the generation rate is estimated as a function of the number of people present.

Each of these methods offers advantages and disadvantages. Mechanical air exchange measurements are not well suited to restaurants. Lack of control of door and window openings, variable use of kitchen ventilator fans, open-hearth fires, and other factors make this approach very difficult to achieve in a reliable way. Use of SF_6 as a tracer gas is a reliable method. However, the instrumentation needed is costly and not readily available.

The carbon dioxide method was used in this investigation. When measurements of carbon dioxide concentration are combined with a single compartment model, estimates for air exchange rate may be obtained (see Appendix A). Simultaneous measurements of both indoor and outdoor CO_2 levels are required at regular intervals over the time period of concern. Additional data requirements include the volume of the room(s) and an accurate time-based count of the people present in the tested area including patrons, employees and investigators. Selection of the sampling points is an important consideration. The carbon dioxide method is best applied to single rooms and may not provide equally accurate results if there are multiple connected rooms. In the case of low occupancy, the indoor CO_2 levels are close to the background threshold and the

calculations are imprecise. As a result, the carbon dioxide tracer method is best suited for single rooms with high occupancy.

METHODS

Experimental Procedure

Sampling location and duration

Two sampling locations were identified in each restaurant. If the restaurant had smoking and nonsmoking sections, measurements were made in each section. The locations for ETS sampling equipment were chosen to be unobtrusive, at least 50 cm from any wall, and located approximately at head height of a seated person. Care was taken to assure that sampling would not be influenced by fans or ventilation systems, or by direct exposure to sidestream or exhaled mainstream smoke plumes. At each location, the protocol recommended that sampling was to be performed in duplicate over a three to four-hour period during the busy serving hours, and was scheduled for an active rather than a quiet day of the week. In most cases, the same restaurant was investigated over two consecutive days. The instruments for CO₂ measurement were placed near the exhaust.

Air sampling methods

Particulate matter samples were collected using 37-mm filters at a flow rate of 2 l/min. with a cyclone vortex assembly establishing a cut-off at an aerodynamic diameter of 3.5 to 4 μ m. Opaque filter holders (SKC Inc., Eighty-Four PA) were recommended for the sampling to ensure the stability of solanesol collected on the filter (Ogden and Richardson 1998). Due to unacceptably high detection limits

French investigators did not report solanesol data. U.S. investigators encountered an early batch of opaque holders that caused highly irregular weight increases by transfer of an oily residue from the holders to the filters. The RSP values were rejected, but determination of the other markers (UVPM, FPM and SolPM) was unaffected.

Gas phase samples were collected with XAD-4 cartridges (SKC Inc., Eighty-Four PA) using an airflow of approximately 1 l/min. Battery-operated membrane pumps with timers and electronically regulated flow (SKC Inc., Eighty-Four PA, or equivalent) were used for sampling. Flow rates were checked before and after each sampling, and an averaged value was reported, unless the difference was larger than 10% in which case the sample was considered invalid. At each session, field blanks were prepared, handled and analyzed in the same manner as the samples. Analytical results for a non-zero blank were subtracted from the corresponding raw results.

Analytical determinations

The analytical procedures for the measurement of ETS markers have been reviewed (Jenkins et al. 2000) and documented in ASTM methods D 5075 - 96 (Nicotine and 3-EP), D 5955 - 96 (UVPM and FPM), and D 6271 - 98 (SolPM), and are summarized as follows.

Particulate matter

Air concentrations of respirable particulate matter (RSP) were determined by gravimetry. Fluoropore-TM filters (Millipore Corp., Bedford MA, FALP037000) were weighed in triplicate on an electrobalance with $\pm 1\mu\text{g}$ resolution after overnight equilibration under controlled humidity (60% RH) and temperature (22° C). After sampling, the same weighing procedure was repeated and the weight difference was reported as RSP. The two estimates of the air concentration of combustion aerosols (UVPM, FPM) were obtained simultaneously from a methanol extract of the filters that sampled the RSP (ASTM, D 5955 – 96 1996). The extract was injected into an HPLC equipped with an UV detector and a fluorescence detector in series, and connected directly to an autosampler by short tubing. The readings were expressed as equivalent concentrations of surrogate standards (2,2',4,4'-tetrahydroxybenzophenone for UV and scopoletin for fluorescence), and converted to UVPM and FPM concentrations using conversion factors (Conner et al. 1990; Nelson et al. 1997, 1998; ASTM D 5955 – 96 1996). The air concentration of solanesol was determined by HPLC analysis of the same extract (Ogden et al. 1989). In addition to reporting solanesol levels, these results were used to derive a selective estimate of the concentration of particulate matter originating from ETS (SolPM) using conversion factors (Nelson et al. 1997, 1998; ASTM D 6271 – 98 1998).

Gas phase components

The XAD-4 tubes were extracted with ethyl acetate containing 0.01% of triethylamine and quinoline as internal standards. Nicotine and 3-ethenylpyridine (3-EP) were determined simultaneously in the extract by capillary gas chromatography with NPD detection, according to ASTM method D 5075 - 96. Measurement of carbon dioxide was performed using non-dispersive IR detectors.

Limits of detection

The limit of detection (LOD) of the analytical methods, expressed in units of $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in air, for each country is shown in Table 1. These values were reported by the laboratory conducting the work. Although there may be some variation in the method used to estimate the LOD, they are generally based on the premise that the signal must be greater than three times the standard deviation of the background or blank. The data show some variability reflecting the exact air sample volumes that were used and the analytical method and instrumentation employed.

Questionnaire

The Pilot Study Protocol provided a questionnaire written in English that sought basic information from the occupants. The questionnaire also assessed their perception concerning a number of indoor environmental conditions including noise, temperature, draft, odor, humidity, freshness, environmental tobacco smoke, and overall indoor air quality and/or indoor environmental quality. The questions were translated and adapted to each local language. In some cases, questions were added to the original questionnaire.

Questionnaires were completed simultaneously with indoor air measurements. Normally the wait staff administered questionnaires after they took orders for the meal. The completed questionnaires were returned to the wait staff. No reliable estimates were obtained for the percentage of questionnaires returned. The wait staff received a small gratuity for the additional workload of administering and returning the questionnaires.

The perceptions of the occupants were classified as satisfied or dissatisfied with a particular item. A dissatisfied occupant was defined as a person marking one of the two lower ratings of a 5-point scale. In Switzerland, a +5 to -5 scale on acceptability towards indoor air quality was analyzed as in the European Building Audit (Bluyssen 1995). The percentage of occupants who voted below the border between just acceptable and just not acceptable was taken as being dissatisfied with the indoor air quality (IAQ). Similar evaluations were made for indoor environmental quality (IEQ). These percentages were averaged and used to obtain the inverse estimate of "Percent Overall Acceptance."

The number of questionnaires returned and the variability of the ventilation rate during a given sampling period both placed the restaurants in two categories with substantial gaps between the two groups. Those restaurants that had either few questionnaires returned or high variation in ventilation rate during the course of a measurement period were excluded from the correlation analysis. Consequently, Percent Overall Acceptance data were analyzed for 15 restaurants, each of which had at least 20 questionnaires returned and less than a factor of two variation in ventilation.

Assessment of ventilation system

The protocol used to assess ventilation addressed both natural and mechanical ventilation systems. Mechanical systems were assessed by professional HVAC engineers to evaluate the adequacy, cleanliness and structural integrity of the systems in use. Two methods were employed to determine the rate of outside air supply to the test space. These were (a) a test and balance (T&B) engineering consultant estimated air exchange rates from the available mechanical ventilation parameters and in-duct air flow measurements, and (b) CO₂ measurements combined with counts of people in the space were used to estimate air exchange rates, as described in Appendix A.

Determination of occupancy and smoking activity

The number of people in each room, whether in smoking or non-smoking areas, was estimated from an average count every thirty minutes. Two methods to determine smoking activity were recommended in the study protocol. The first method was collection and counting the cigarette butts about every thirty minutes. The second method was frequent periodic visual observation and tabulation of occupant smoking. Regardless of the method used, the number of cigarettes smoked per hour was estimated.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results from the Analytical Measurements

Investigations in thirty-four restaurants in six countries generated a large amount of analytical data and reflected the diversity of situations encountered in such locations. Because of the many sources of variability, the raw data were screened for aberrant results. Estimates of tobacco smoke contribution to RSP (UVPM, FPM and SolPM) were rejected when they were substantially higher than the corresponding gravimetric determination of total RSP. When replicate determinations were obtained, results that deviated by more than 25% from the mean of the determinations were also rejected following the recommendations made in Woolfenden (1997). The median, arithmetic mean, geometric mean, standard deviation, and the levels corresponding to the 80th and 95th percentiles in each country for each analyte after elimination of the outliers are shown in Table 2.

Place Table 2 about here.

The results in Table 2 are comparable to other reported area monitoring data for the levels of ETS markers in restaurants where smoking was permitted. A summary of these data is available in a review by Jenkins et al. (2000). Furthermore, the data can be compared by geographic region and by gas and particulate phase constituents. Carbon monoxide does not appear in Table 2

because the data did not correlate to any other ETS marker, in accordance with previous reports (Jenkins et al. 2000).

Nicotine results

Nicotine arithmetic mean levels between 2.8 and 8.4 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ were measured during the 1990-1993 period in U.S. restaurants where smoking was allowed (Jenkins et al. 2000). Recently, means of 3.1 to 4.5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (Moschandreas and Vuilleumier 1999) and 6.0 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (Maskarinec et al. 2000) were reported in smoking sections of U.S. restaurants. Mean nicotine levels of 14.8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (Muramatsu et al. 1987) and 4.8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (Baek et al. 1997) were reported for Asian restaurants. In the case of European restaurants, reports of a mean of 15 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (Kirk et al. 1988), and ranges of 5.0 to 90 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ averaged at 32 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (Löfroth 1993), 2.2 to 33.5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ averaged at 12.3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (Meger et al. 2000) and 0.4 to 46 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ averaged at 7.0 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (Hyvärinen et al. 2000) have been published. Nicotine levels shown in Table 2 are within the range of previously reported results in the comparable geographic regions.

Particulate matter results

Particulate matter levels in restaurants where smoking is allowed are often reported only as total RSP. However, several studies report particulate matter results from area monitoring that are more specific to ETS. Mean values for combustion-derived particulate matter between 26 and 67 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ have been reported in US studies (Crouse et al. 1988; Crouse and Carson 1989; Ogden et al. 1990). Recently, mean values of 29.4 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ for combustion aerosol and 20.4

$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ for SolPM were reported in U.S. restaurants (Maskarinec et al. 2000). The mean UVPM and FPM values found in this study are similar to those reported by Maskarinec, but the SolPM is somewhat lower. In Asia, mean levels of 45.6, 22.5 and $25.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ were reported for UVPM, FPM and SolPM, respectively (Baek et al. 1997). Korean results shown in Table 2 are comparable to those values for UVPM but somewhat higher for FPM and SolPM.

Comparison of ETS levels in smoking and non-smoking areas

Three of the restaurants investigated in the US, and 3 of the restaurants investigated in the UK were divided into smoking and non-smoking sections. A comparison of the levels measured in these settings is shown in Table 3. These results indicate that a greater difference exists between the means of the measured levels of ETS-specific markers in smoking and non-smoking areas than those that are less specific. The ratio of the means of non-smoking to smoking levels for nicotine matches well that of SolPM.

Place Table 3 about here.

Correlation between the marker levels

The protocol called for measurement of a number of ETS markers using methods that have been well assessed in field studies. An objective was to explore whether based on correlation between ETS marker concentrations, comparison of the different results obtained in a single sampling can be an efficient way to improve the reliability of the results. This approach provided an insight into the composition of ETS that serves as an investigative tool, and that might lead to the ability to

conduct studies while measuring a reduced set of analytes. Therefore, the relationships between the levels of RSP, UVPM, FPM, SolPM, nicotine and 3-EP were investigated. A correlation table was constructed from the ETS data from each country. The results are shown in Table 4, with the Spearman rank correlation coefficients given above and to the right of the diagonal and the Pearson correlation coefficients below and to the left of the diagonal. They suggest that a better correlation exists between markers present in the same phase whether gas or particulate. Figure 1 shows the correlation between the raw data obtained in Switzerland (80 data points including replicates) for the ETS markers investigated.

Place Figure 1 about here.

The results shown in Figure 1 as well as scatter plots generated using data from other countries, and the correlation matrix in Table 4 suggest the following conclusions.

- There is a good correlation between the two spectrometric estimations of particulate phase concentration (UVPM and FPM). This is expected because both determinations are made from the same sample. Therefore, any outlying point in the correlation should be investigated for possible analytical error or interference in one of the determinations.
- The solanesol concentration (or the derived SolPM estimation) is well correlated with UVPM or FPM. The ratio of SolPM to UVPM versus UVPM was plotted in Figure 2. This plot shows that at higher smoke

levels the ratio was close to one. There were, however, some data points that show lower SolPM than UVPM or FPM at lower smoke levels, suggesting that the contribution of combustion aerosols other than from tobacco smoke was substantial in those cases. The few points where a ratio larger than one was found occur at trace smoke levels are likely a result of conducting measurements close to the limit of detection.

Place Figure 2 about here.

- Over the entire data set, it appears that the RSP level does not correlate well with levels of particulate matter that are highly specific to tobacco smoke. Based on the medians, combustion aerosols were found to contribute about 50% of the RSP and Sol-PM about 34%.
- The nicotine concentrations are well correlated with the 3-EP concentrations. There is a trend towards lower nicotine to 3-EP ratio at lower smoke levels as shown in Figure 3. Because nicotine exhibits larger sorption effects, this ratio will be higher in fresh ETS. This is more likely to happen in those situations where ETS levels are highest (Eatough 1993; Guerin et al. 1992).

Place Figure 3 about here.

The concentrations of the particulate matter markers can also be correlated to the gas phase data. As an example, the ratio of UVPM and nicotine levels was

computed and plotted as a function of the nicotine concentration in Figure 4. At higher nicotine concentration, the ratio is more constant as the impact of sorption effects is less important. In this case, the ratio of ETS-RSP to nicotine is close to 5; comparable to the values found in experimental settings, or when fresh smoke data are included in the evaluations (Van Loy et al. 1998). It can be observed that ratios between the levels of gas phase and particulate phase compounds become extremely variable at low ETS concentrations, typically below nicotine concentrations of 5-10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ according to Figure 4. At these low levels, using nicotine data to predict the ETS-RSP levels appears to be inappropriate.

Place Figure 4 about here.

Distribution of the levels of the measured ETS constituents:

Figure 5 shows the distribution of the estimates for ETS-RSP concentrations while Figure 6 shows a plot of these concentrations by country. Overall, the data follow a lognormal distribution, although the central values and ranges of ETS-RSP differ by country. This suggests that comparing arithmetic means is not the ideal way to summarize distributions that have consistently been reported to be log-normally distributed (Jenkins et al. 2000), or to follow some other distribution than normal (Moschandreas and Vuilleumier 1999). This is especially important when the results contain a large percentage of values below the analytical detection limit (Kirk et al. 1988). In cases of log-normal or other skewed distributions, a small number of large values will result in an arithmetic mean that is much larger than the median or geometric mean, thereby misrepresenting the distribution of values.

Place Figure 5 about here.

Place Figure 6 about here.

Observing distributions provided another way of assessing the ratio of particulate matter to nicotine. This was done in Figure 7 where the cumulative distributions of the ratios to nicotine of the levels of each of the three markers of ETS-PM have been plotted. Figure 7 shows that the spread of the actual ratios actually encompasses more than an order of magnitude. It confirms that both combustion product markers give overall equivalent results. Their respective medians differ slightly and correspond to ratios of 9.0 and 10.0 for UVPM and FPM respectively, compatible with the estimations proposed by Van Loy et al. (1998). SolPM is more specific for ETS, and its median corresponds to a ratio of 5.4. As an estimate of ETS-RSP, the average of the levels of the combustion product markers ($UVPM/2 + FPM/2$) was in turn averaged with the level of SolPM. That value was used throughout the remainder of this study as the indicator of ETS levels. The distribution of its ratio to nicotine was plotted on Figure 7 and the median was found to be 7.6.

Place Figure 7 about here.

Methodology assessment

There were no consistent problems associated with the methodology used in this study. It was confirmed that it is important to perform two or more replicate determinations at each location, which helps to detect outliers. For example, an inordinately high value may indicate that the sample was taken too close to a smoke source, and that the result is not representative of the assessed

environment. Such an occurrence was observed during the study, and in order to screen out such results, data deviating by more than 25% from the mean were rejected. In this data set about 5% of the raw data were considered outliers. Additionally, information can be derived from the correlation between the concentration of ETS markers. For instance, a non-zero intercept in the regression line of UVPM vs. FPM occurred in one data set, which suggests an erroneous blank correction.

In many of the cases in which very low values were found for solanesol compared to the spectrometric markers (UVPM or FPM), the nicotine levels were also very low suggesting that an artifact elevated the spectrometric results. In the Swiss data, two sampling locations that yielded highly elevated results for UVPM and FPM relative to SolPM could be traced to the presence of an open fireplace in the room. In this case, the solanesol still provided a reliable estimation of ETS-RSP.

The main conclusion regarding the methodological part of this study was that when no changes were made to the published procedures, the analytical protocols were robust. Performing duplicate determinations was found extremely important in ensuring a quality audit of the data that could be substantiated. The study results could be used to make a recommendation regarding the markers to be measured in order to assess ETS level with a minimal workload. Markers for both the gas and particulate phase are required.

Nicotine and 3-EP are two viable gas phase candidates. Nicotine concentrations are influenced particularly at low concentrations by its sorption properties, which speaks for the use of 3-EP. In this study, the nicotine/3-EP ratio

was found to decrease significantly below about $2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ of nicotine, which puts some limits to its use at low smoke levels. Yet, nicotine has become widely accepted as an ETS marker, and the existence of a large data base for this compound makes its determination valuable for comparative purposes.

For the particulate phase, it is important to select a marker that is as specific as possible for ETS. RSP does not meet this criterion. UVPM and FPM are combustion related particulate matter, but not tobacco specific. Because SolPM is specific for tobacco smoke, it is recommended for the particulate phase. Determination of UVPM, FPM and SolPM require the use of a conversion factor that is dependent on the cigarette smoked. In contrast, measurement of the compound solanesol is a direct analytical determination of a specific compound found in the particulate phase that does not require a conversion factor. We also concluded that performing correlation of the marker concentrations is a useful quality assurance technique.

Results from Indoor Air Quality Questionnaire

A total of 1370 questionnaires were returned by restaurant patrons in five countries. Table 5 shows the combined "Percent Dissatisfied" by country for each indoor environmental parameter included on the questionnaire. Although most are below 10%, dissatisfaction rates above 20% are seen for draft, freshness and noise. Dissatisfaction rates for indoor air quality (IAQ) and indoor environmental quality (IEQ) are generally below 10% and are not significantly different from each other when both were recorded. No restaurant had more than 20% dissatisfied. The mean and standard deviation for the Percent Overall Dissatisfied for the combined IAQ and IEQ results were 6.1 and 3.8, respectively.

Place Table 5 about here.

Figure 8 shows the percent of Overall Acceptance (IAQ and IEQ) categories by country for all restaurants. Indoor environmental design guidelines and standards provide for "guidance values" of dissatisfaction in the range of 10-30% (CEC 1992) or for more than 80% acceptance (ASHRAE 1999). A CEN Report on *Design Criteria for the Indoor Environment* specifies different "levels of expectation" (CEN CR 1752 1998). The data presented above indicate that physical stresses such as noise and draft challenge those limits. On the other hand, occupants' expectations towards indoor air quality appeared to have been met in restaurants in this survey.

Place Figure 8 about here.

Figure 9 shows the ratings for Overall Acceptance separating the data into smoker and nonsmoker responses for those restaurants having more than 20 questionnaires returned, and which did not have highly variable ventilation rates ($n = 15$). In general, non-smokers tend to be slightly more dissatisfied than are smokers. However, these results show little evidence for a relationship between ETS-RSP levels and Overall Acceptance, as perceived by the patrons in a real-world environment. As shown in Figure 10, Acceptance for Tobacco Smoke was almost as high as with Overall Acceptance, with a tendency of the nonsmokers clustering around the 80% acceptance level at any measured ETS levels.

Subjective responses from smokers and non-smokers for spaces containing ETS have been investigated in experimental settings (Cain et al. 1983, 1987;

Leaderer et al. 1984; Clausen et al. 1987; Gunnarsen et al. 1991; Straub et al. 1992; Walker et al. 1997). At a given ETS level, smokers tend to give higher acceptability ratings than non-smokers. Among non-smokers, 80% acceptability of air quality is generally achieved at ETS levels resulting in ETS-RSP concentrations of about 60-100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (Walker et al. 1997). The acceptance rate observed in this study is indeed substantially higher than what would have been predicted from the results of the above studies, including the most recent by Walker et al. (1997).

Place Figure 9 about here.

Place Figure 10 about here.

Conclusions from Questionnaire

Although the questionnaires were slightly different in different countries, they could be analyzed together to estimate for each country the "Percent Dissatisfied" towards a list of indoor environmental parameters. Smokers and non-smokers display no differential issues with tobacco smoke compared to other indoor environmental parameters. The dissatisfaction rate with the presence of ETS is lower than would be predicted from results obtained through ETS exposure in experimental settings.

Results from Ventilation Assessment

Figure 11 shows a plot of CO_2 concentration and occupancy for a Swiss restaurant versus time. Allowing for a phase lag it is clear that the CO_2 concentration tracks the occupancy well. Figure 12 shows a comparison of the results of the model and measured CO_2 concentrations in two locations in a Swiss restaurant. The standard error of prediction for the model-predicted carbon dioxide

concentration and that measured was approximately ± 125 ppm CO_2 or about $\pm 10\text{-}15\%$ of the mean CO_2 concentration for the restaurant concerned. These results confirm that the use of the occupancy count and the model reliably estimates the ventilation rates.

Place Figure 11 about here.

Place Figure 12 about here.

In the survey, 89 meals periods were observed in 33 restaurants for which a ventilation rate could be estimated. It is common practice to normalize ventilation rates to take into account the size of the location. Figure 13 shows a distribution of measured ventilation rates (l/s-m^2) for the 33 restaurants assessed. A lognormal distribution seems to fit this data set ($r = 0.91$) with a median of 1.8 l/s-m^2 and a standard deviation of 2.1 l/s-m^2 . The European CEN Report CR 1752 requires a ventilation rate of 8 l/s-m^2 , and of 10.6 l/s-m^2 for hospitality environments when smoking is permitted (CEN 1998). Figure 13 would seem to indicate that none of the restaurants surveyed would be ventilated in agreement with this guideline, albeit customer's expectations about indoor air quality had been met.

Place Figure 13 about here.

Conclusions from Ventilation Assessment

Determination of ventilation rates in restaurants using direct measurement of mechanical systems was difficult and unreliable. Use of CO₂ as a tracer gas combined with a dynamic model proved to be a simple and reliable method to estimate effective ventilation regardless of how the ventilation is achieved. The distribution of the ventilation rates among the restaurants appears lognormal with a median value well below recommended ventilation rates.

Indoor Air Modeling

A further goal was to determine if an ETS constituent concentration in the indoor air of restaurants could be predicted from cigarette ETS yield values and ventilation rates calculated from carbon dioxide measurements. The experimental design of this study provides the necessary data to perform the calculations, including the measurement of a number of ETS constituents, the number of cigarettes smoked per time interval, and the effective ventilation rates that are described above. ETS yields of constituents are available in the literature (Martin et al. 1997). A simple model was used that is derived from the basic physical model (Appendix A) to calculate the steady state concentration of an indoor air pollutant from the quotient of the rate of generation divided by the rate of removal as shown in Equation 1.

$$C = C_o + G/Q_i \quad \text{Eqn. 1}$$

If gas phase constituents such as nicotine or 3-EP that typically have low concentration in outdoor air are selected, C_o can be assumed to be negligible and Equation 1 reduces to Equation 2.

$$C = G/Q_i$$

Eqn. 2

where G = generation rate ($\mu\text{g/h}$)

Q_i = removal rate (m^3/h)

G , the generation rate for nicotine ($\mu\text{g/h}$) is found from the product of M , the ETS yield of nicotine ($\mu\text{g/cig}$) measured experimentally (Martin et al. 1997), and N , the number of cigarettes smoked per hour (cig/h), which yields the expression $G = M(\mu\text{g/cig}) * N(\text{cig/h}) = \mu\text{g/h}$. Because nicotine displays removal processes other than ventilation, the removal rate becomes $Q_i * F$, where F is a factor to account for these processes. In these cases, $Q_i * F$ becomes an effective ventilation rate (Nelson et al. 1992) and Equation 2 becomes Equation 3.

$$C = G (\mu\text{g/h}) / Q_i * F (\text{m}^3/\text{h}) = \mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3 \quad \text{Eqn. 3}$$

ETS yields of nicotine and 3-EP from cigarettes were taken to be 1585 $\mu\text{g/cig}$ and 334 $\mu\text{g/cig}$, respectively (Martin et al. 1997) which the authors showed to provide the best predictions for real ETS situations. For 28 sessions in five Swiss restaurants, nicotine and 3-EP concentrations were calculated using Equation 3, and the results are summarized in Table 6. Figure 14 shows a plot of predicted versus measured nicotine for a value of $F = 1.4$.

Place Table 6 about here.

Place Figure 14 about here.

Although the results appear to predict the measured concentrations well, especially at the higher concentrations, a set of objective criteria is desirable.

Table 7 shows the results of the model compared to a set of criteria for adequate

model performance recommended by ASTM (ASTM D 5157 – 97). According to these results, the model is found adequate based on all criteria. A number of models for indoor particle concentrations failed to fulfill these criteria (Bohanon and Cole 1997).

Place Table 7 about here.

In view of the simplicity and potential uncertainties associated with the input parameters, the model predicts nicotine and 3-EP concentrations surprisingly well. Parameters that would benefit from further investigation include the ETS yields of smoke constituents from the cigarettes actually smoked during the investigation and the processes for nicotine removal in addition to ventilation. Experimental errors in counting the number of cigarettes smoked are a potential factor. This study has demonstrated that there is significant potential for the use of carbon dioxide measurements to estimate ventilation rates and the further use of those results to estimate concentrations of indoor ETS constituents.

CONCLUSIONS

Cost effective investigations of ventilation, personal perceptions, smoking activity and ETS analytical measurements may be designed using insight gained from this pilot study. There is a synergy obtained from the components of a comprehensive indoor environment investigation because an important benefit can be gained from utilizing diverse information collected simultaneously. For example, correlation between different determinations enhances the ability to detect data outliers and experimental errors. Furthermore, in order to develop a general

understanding of indoor environments, it is necessary to obtain simultaneously analytical data, information on occupant activities and to assess the ventilation.

Studies that are as comprehensive as this one benefit significantly by having a standardized protocol for all participants to follow. This protocol should mandate at least 2 replicates for each analytical determination. Because of the strong correlation between the concentration of various ETS components, it is not necessary to measure a large number of constituents to gain insight into ETS levels in restaurant facilities. However, it is necessary to measure at least one constituent each in the vapor and particulate phases. The most beneficial measurements are perhaps nicotine or 3-ethenylpyridine, and solanesol or SolPM. Carbon dioxide generated by occupants was found to be a viable tool to determine ventilation rates. Indications are that these ventilation rates when combined with smoking activity and nicotine ETS yield per cigarette can result in a successful prediction of airborne nicotine concentration.

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APPENDIX A

Model to estimate ventilation rates

The use of carbon dioxide to estimate restaurant ventilation rates is based on CO₂ exhalation at a rate of 0.3 L/min-person (ASHRAE 62-1999 1999). If CO₂ is removed by ventilation from outside air at a constant rate and the room air is well mixed, the difference between measured indoor and outdoor CO₂ concentration provides a means to estimate the rate of ventilation. The concentration of CO₂ in the indoor air at any time may be estimated by Equation 4 (Ishizu 1980).

$$C(t) = \left(C_0 - \frac{G + C_i Q_i}{Q_i} \right) \exp\left(-\frac{Q_i t}{V} \right) + \frac{G + C_i Q_i}{Q_i} \quad \text{Eqn. 4}$$

where:

$C(t)$ =	CO ₂ concentration after time t	C_0 =	Initial CO ₂ concentration
G =	Generation rate of CO ₂ from people	Q_i =	Estimated ventilation rate
C_i =	Outside CO ₂ concentration	V =	Total room volume
t =	time		

The parameters C_0 , G , V and an initial estimate of the ventilation rate Q_i were entered into a Microsoft Excel for Windows[®] spreadsheet. Columns of time intervals and number of persons present during those time intervals were used with a column containing Equation 4 to compute estimated $C(t)$ values. Because these values were based on an initial estimate of Q_i , they were not expected to be accurate. Then, Microsoft Excel Solver was used to vary the value of Q_i to minimize the mean square error between the calculated $C(t)$ values and those measured at the same time intervals during the experiment. This method yielded an estimate of the ventilation rate that fit the model to the experimental results.

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FIGURE CAPTIONS

- Figure 1. Scatter Plots between the RSP and ETS-markers (Swiss Data, n=80)
- Figure 2. Ratio of SolPM to UVPM versus UVPM (Swiss Data)
- Figure 3. Ratio of Nicotine to 3EP versus Nicotine Level (U.S. Data)
- Figure 4. Ratio of UVPM to Nicotine versus Nicotine Level (Swiss Data)
- Figure 5. Distribution of ETS-RSP results from all restaurants surveyed
- Figure 6. Distribution of ETS-RSP results by country
- Figure 7. *Distribution of ratio of nicotine to particulate matter markers*
- Figure 8. Percentage categories by country (all restaurants)
- Figure 9. Percent Overall Acceptance (IAQ and IEQ) of smokers and non-smokers in 15 restaurants versus ETS-RSP ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)
- Figure 10. Percent acceptance towards tobacco smoke of smokers and non-smokers in 15 restaurants versus ETS-RSP ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)
- Figure 11. CO_2 concentration and occupancy versus time (Swiss restaurant)
- Figure 12. Comparison of modeled and measured CO_2 concentrations in two locations in a restaurant
- Figure 13. Distribution of measured ventilation rates ($\text{l}/\text{s}\cdot\text{m}^2$) for 33 restaurants assessed
- Figure 14. Plot of predicted versus measured nicotine concentration in 28 restaurants using Equation 3 to calculate predicted nicotine concentrations